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ABSTRACT

Project ROME-FOCUS (results-oriented management in education--field-oriented, competency utilization system) is a field-oriented, competency-based instructional program for school administrators pursuing the sixth-year degree at Valdosta State College. It represents an effort to develop and execute a training program that focuses on a group of 80 competencies. Competency is conceived of as the school administrator's demonstrated ability to identify and solve a high priority problem. The theoretical basis for problem-solving in this project is a model called "consequence analysis." Each program objective is organized in a way that attempts to help the school administrator apply this model in solving an instructional problem in his own school. In this pamphlet, preassessment and postassessment procedures are outlined. An explanation of consequence analysis is presented, followed by a description of the various parts of the ROME-FOCUS instructional program and an explanation of program objectives. (Author/IRT)

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FIELD-ORIENTED COMPETENCY-BASED TRAINING IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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PREFACE

Project ROME-FOCUS is a field-oriented, competency-based instructional program for school administrators pursuing the sixth year degree at Valdosta State College. After preliminary research via Project R.O.M.E. (Results Oriented Management in Education), a group of 80 F.A.C.T. (Functional Area Category Titles) competency statements for school principals in Georgia was developed. [1] This project represents an effort to develop and execute a training program which literally focuses on those competencies. The acronym F.O.C.U.S. stands for field oriented, competency utilization system, hence Project R.O.M.E. - F.O.C.U.S.

Competency in this project is conceived of as the school administrator's demonstrated ability to identify and solve a high priority problem. Normally, a high priority problem is defined as one which is directly related to the goals and objectives of the school organization. The theoretical basis for problem solving in this project is a model we call "consequence analysis." Each program objective is organized in a way that attempts to help the school administrator apply this model in solving an instructional problem in his own school.

In this pamphlet, preassessment and postassessment procedures are outlined. An explanation of consequence analysis is presented. This explanation is followed by a description of the various parts of the R.O.M.E.-F.O.C.U.S. instructional program. In addition, program objectives are stated and explained. A brief summary is included in order to allow the author some concluding comments.

The development of this program was hardly an individual effort. Elmer Ellis, Professor of Education, Valdosta State College, contributed much to the overall development of this program. Without his help, and the help of Iris Dominey, research associate with the project, the program could not have been produced. John Clark, Title III Coordinator, Thomas County Schools, deserves a tip of the hat for his support and cooperation. Chad Ellett, David Payne, and Mark Perkins of of the Project R.O.M.E. staff at the University of Georgia must receive high praise for their research contribution to this program. Further, both Gene Bottoms and Steve Preston of the Georgia State Department of Education provided much encouragement and motivation to the project staff.

PRE AND POST ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

The preassessment phase is to be jointly implemented by the project staff at Valdosta State College and the project staff at the University of Georgia during November of 1975. The purpose of this phase is threefold. First, data are produced which help participants identify problems in their schools. Second, data are produced relevant to the competencies of each participant as perceived by an external observer, teachers, and self. Third, pretest data are produced for the external evaluation of the total program.

Problem Identification

The following instruments are seen as resources for identifying problem areas in schools participating in this project. Teacher variables are operationalized in terms of The School Survey, a fourteen-dimension measure of teachers' perceptions of the school and its environment, generally referred to as "work attitudes." Data from students are derived from the Learning Environment Inventory applicable to secondary students, and the My School Inventory applicable to elementary students. The Learning Environment Inventory is a fifteen-factor instrument that measures students' perception of climate, a variable known to be related to school achievement. The My School Inventory is an elementary school adaption of the Learning Environment Inventory. The lowest obtained scores for various factors measured by these instruments are suggestive of problem areas needing improvement within the school. From these data, each participant is to articulate a high priority school problem upon which to base his individualized instructional program.

Competency Assessment

The second application of preassessment data is the assessment of participant competency. The Principal Performance Description Survey; the self-assessment form, the teacher form, and the external observer form are used to yield data allowing for a contrast between participants' self assessment in a variety of competency composite areas, and assessment by other rating sources. This procedure might be called "discrepancy analysis." Data are generated for each participant that point to the largest discrepancies between "self" and "others" perception of compe-

tence. Derived from this discrepancy analysis is an individual diagnostic profile from which each participant can plan a program of study.

External Evaluation

The third application of preassessment data is as a pretest for the external evaluation of the project. Positive modification of both problem variables and competency variables is the rather optimistic objective of this project. This improvement in the project variables is to be substantiated by the postassessment in May, 1976, using the same instruments and reference groups involved in preassessment.

In addition, an internal evaluation is to be implemented involving four operational measures. The first is the percentage of total project objectives successfully completed by project participants. Criteria for evaluating the completion of project objectives are discussed later in this text. The second measure is to be a six-item semantic differential which assesses participant attitudes about the relative goodness, the relative activeness and potency of concepts like "Project R.O.M.E.," "My Relationships with Staff," and "My Performance in Curriculum and Instruction." This instrument is to be administered to all participants; once at the beginning of the project, once in the middle of the project, and once at the end of the project. As a third measure, each member of the project's instructional staff is to complete a written critique of the program which is to be included in the final evaluation report. The fourth measure is a ten-item meeting evaluation instrument developed by E.H. Schein, which is to be administered at the end of each project seminar.[2]

CONSEQUENCE ANALYSIS

It is important for school administrators to consider the consequences of their behavior. In training competent school administrators, the analysis of administrative behavior in terms of its consequences for the school organization can be a profitable venture.[3] Competence in school administration can be conceived as the ability to bring about certain desired organiza-

tional consequences. Typically, these desired consequences should be understood in terms of the goals and objectives of the school organization.

The Problem-Solving Model

The rudiments of consequence analysis bear some similarity to Merton's functional analysis.[4] Consequence analysis is presented here as a tool school administrators can use in identifying and solving school problems. In this model, consequences are conceived of as having four basic classifications. First, positive consequences are defined as those observable consequences that make for the adjustment or adaption of a given system. Second, negative consequences are observed consequences that lessen the adaption or adjustment of a system. Third, intended or anticipated consequences are those which are intended and recognized by participants in the system. Fourth, unintended or unanticipated consequences are neither intended nor recognized by the participants.

Simply stated, consequence analysis is a way of looking at school problems in terms of their consequences. For instance, poor reading instruction might be a problem because its consequence for the role of the student in a school organization may be poor reading achievement. Solutions also have consequences. They have intended consequences which should result in the reduction of the problem. In addition, they have certain anticipated, and sometimes unanticipated negative consequences which must be considered in choosing and implementing an alternative. Well stated objectives will specify solutions, intended consequences, and criteria for evaluating intended consequences. While the model does not take the position that ends justify means, it does suggest constant examination of consequences as a base for rational problem solving.

In everyday life, problems rarely happen one at a time. Problems can be considered in terms of their consequences, or in terms of constraints in time and resources. Some problems situations produce more serious negative consequences for the school organization than others. Some problems can be handled immediately. Others can wait. Some problems require more resources than are available. Others can be taken care of with resources on hand. When the school administrator prioritorizes simultaneous problem situations for action, he must ask some

very practical questions. "Which situation presents the most serious negative consequences for the school organization?" "What are the consequences of handling a problem now as opposed to later?" "What are the consequences of spending resources on one problem as opposed to another?" In the end, prioritorizing problem situations for action can be viewed as the process of valuing negative consequences in terms of their impact on the school organization.

Consequence analysis can be employed formally to solve long range problems bearing directly on the aims of the school organization, or it can be used rather informally to solve relatively simple problems with no real long range implications. Let's take a look at figure 1 which presents the major phases of consequence analysis.

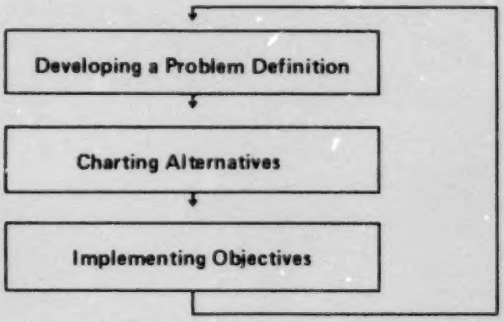

Figure 1. Consequence Analysis

An Explanation of the Model

Phase one of consequence analysis is entitled "developing a problem definition." The purpose of this phase is to provide an accurate answer to the question, "What is the problem?" As simple as this question appears, it is basic to rational problem solving that the process be based on an accurate definition of the problem. Otherwise, an inaccurate estimate of the problem would result in wasted effort.

Initially, problem indicators are viewed as useful resources in developing a problem definition.[5] A problem indicator makes a school administrator aware of the existence of negative consequences in the school organization. Almost anything can serve as a problem indicator; a parent's complaint, the results of a needs assessment, the perception of apathy, an unfavorable

newspaper article, or a student demonstration. Developing a valid problem definition is a matter of establishing a congruency or fit between reliable problem indicators and possible problem definitions. For example, declining attendance at P.T.A. meetings, a poor turnout at parent's night, and a defeated bond issue might fit the problem definition, "How can we improve school-community relations?"

Phase two is entitled "charting alternatives." In this step the problem solver is encouraged to entertain as wide a range of alternative solutions as possible within the constraints of the situation. The problem solver is asked to list possible alternatives with their intended consequences, and their anticipated negative consequences. In this synthesized form alternatives can be weighed against one another in terms of their consequences, and based on this valuing of consequences a solution can be chosen for testing. In addition, based on this valuing process, alternatives are ranked to develop a contingency pool, i.e., plan 1, plan 2, etc.

Let's chart the problem of choosing a new reading program to replace an antiquated one presently producing poor reading skills among students in grades one through six. The problem definition might be, "How can we improve reading achievement in grades one through six?" The charting of this problem is presented below as figure 2.

Contingency Rating	Alternatives	Intended Consequences	Negative Consequences
2	Reading Program X	Improved Instruction in phonics.	Some teachers do not understand the phonics approach and would feel threatened.
1	Reading Program Y	Improved instruction in reading via a multi media presentation	Machines breakdown and must be repaired. Higher initial investment.
3	No Change	Improve use of the old program.	Test results show it may never improve reading skills.

Figure 2. A Problem Charting

With respect to the simplified example presented above, three alternatives have been generated.[6] In terms of the contingency ratings, Reading Program Y has been selected as a possible solution. In this case we can assume cost was not a factor, or perhaps the school administrator intends to phase in the program one grade level at a time to reduce this negative consequence. It is possible that the school administrator felt that a repair and maintenance program could be easier to implement than the inservice program on the phonics approach mandated by Reading Program X. He also must have felt that Reading Program Y could bring about improved reading achievement among his students, while the old program could no longer produce such consequences. Should Reading Program Y not prove successful, the administrator might reconsider his second choice, or generate new alternatives for charting.

Phase three is entitled "implementing objectives." The participant is asked to state a chosen alternative in performance terms i.e., what is to be done, what consequences are intended, and what criteria are to be used to evaluate the existence of these intended consequences.[7]

Implementation is conceptualized as the reduction of negative consequences inherent in a selected solution. For example, the participant may choose program x to improve school discipline. While the intended consequence is obvious, the solution may be met by resistance from older faculty members who prefer the old disciplinary program. This resistance is a negative consequence of the chosen solution. In order for successful implementation to take place, the administrator must develop ways of avoiding or reducing this consequence.

Based on the criteria stated in the objective, and given a fair trial, the following questions must be answered in order to evaluate the success of the objective:

1. Did we accomplish what we set out to accomplish?
2. Were there any previously unanticipated negative consequences produced by the solution?
3. Based on the answers to the above questions, should we continue using this solution?
4. If not, what should we do next?

Problem Solving: A Dynamic Process

In consequence analysis, problem solving is viewed as a continuous process. For this reason, it is important to view it as a dynamic model. The process can be conceived as relevant to three classic types of problems; type I, type II, and type III.

A type I problem is characterized by problem indicators which are perceived as unsubstantiated by the school administrator. With respect to a type I problem the typical problem definition would be: "How can I determine the truthfulness of the problem indicators?" To solve this type of problem, the entire model can be employed to develop data collection alternatives which appear most effective, to implement the data collection alternatives, and to evaluate the information produced. Let's consider the following problem:

> You are principal of Jackson Junior High, in a community of approximately 15,000 population in Georgia. One week prior to the school board meeting you receive a telephone call from Mrs. Thelma Bagley who advises you that she and a group of "interested citizens" plan to attend the school board meeting to protest your junior high football program. She claims she will be accompanied by a local pediatrician who will read a report by a famous surgeon claiming interscholastic football at the junior high level effects normal bone growth and may in some cases lead to bone cancer in later life. She would like you to support their request that the football program be dropped.

The problem indicator in this situation is Mrs. Bagley's phone call to the principal, but what is the problem? Is it whether or not to keep the football program? Is it how to develop an "interested group" of your own to thwart Mrs. Bagley's efforts and save football at Jackson?

Let's analyze the problem indicator. Can we believe Mrs. Bagley? Will a pediatrician really support her views? Will he say what she claims he will say? Or, even if he does, will other doctors agree with his views? Do others in the community share her views: Virtually everything she has said in this conversation is unsubstantiated information, and should be considered a type I problem. The problem definition would be, "Can we substantiate Mrs. Bagley's report?" The problem-solving model should be employed to solve this problem.

A type II problem occurs when the problem indicators have been either substantiated as type I problem or immediately accepted because of their obvious reliability. Seeing the school building on fire is an example of a problem indicator which can be accepted for its obvious reliability. Let's consider the following case:

> Jack Smith has been school custodian for over twenty years. Jack is close to retirement, and he has been a loyal employee. He is a regular customer at the local tavern and often appears on the job with alcohol on his breath. Last Thursday, your assistant found Jack drunk in the boiler room. Jack apologizes, but says he cannot control his drinking problem. This is the second time this has happened. As school principal, you must decide what action to take.

In this case, the problem indicators appear fairly reliable. Your assistant has reported finding Jack drunk in the boiler room. Jack admits that this happened, apologizes, and remarks that he cannot control his drinking problem. You know this has happened before, that Jack is a regular at the local tavern, but you also know that for twenty years he has been a loyal employee. In a couple of years Jack will be eligible for retirement. Since the reliability of the problem indicators are not in doubt, this can be considered a type II problem. The problem definition might be, "What should we do about Jack?" The problem-solving model should be utilized to solve this problem.

A type III problem is characterized by substantiated evaluation data which serves as the problem indicators. In other words, if the type II problem-solving process was successful, the evaluation data will confirm the solution of the problem. If the type II process was unsuccessful the evaluation data will not support the existence of a problem solution. In this case, a type III problem should be considered, and the problem definition would be stated, "What should we do next?" A type III definition should be implemented until the problem is solved. Let's consider the following problem situation:

> You are principal and Title III director for a small rural school in Florida. In developing your program a thorough needs assessment was done. Reading appeared to be the school's number one problem. Several alternatives were considered and individualized reading machines were purchased

from a local company. After two years of this program, reading achievement among the Title III children did not improve. In addition, maintenance of the machines has been a real headache. The company has given poor service in your opinion, and your relationship with their representatives is getting worse.

The selection of the reading machines constituted an attempt to solve a type II problem. Apparently, in evaluating the success of this program, you have determined that the problem situation remains relatively unchanged. In addition, certain unanticipated negative consequences have arisen like maintenance problems and poor relations with the servicing company. This evaluation provides type III indicators for the problem definition, "What should we do next?" See figure 3 for a further explanation of the three types of consequence analysis.

	Type I	Type II	Type III, etc. . . .
Problem Indicator	Unsubstantiated Data	Substantiated Data	Substantiated Evaluation Data
Problem Definition	How can the problem indicators be substantiated?	What should be done to correct the situation?	What should be done next?

Figure 3. Problem Typology.

Problem Solving as a Skill

While it is probably true that the potential to be a competent problem solver is partly inherited at birth, consequence analysis like any other skill can be improved through training and practice. Of course, many problems requiring the attention of the school principal do not allow enough time to implement consequence analysis formally. In these situations, it is believed that given training and practice in the process of analyzing problem situations in terms of their consequences for the school organization, any school administrator can improve his problem-solving skills, even those problems he must "shoot from the hip" to solve.

F.O.C.U.S. INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Participants in Project R.O.M.E.-F.O.C.U.S. are all practicing school administrators pursuing the sixth year degree at Valdosta State College. Each participant must complete a minimum of eight program objectives to receive credit for 15 quarter hours of graduate work. The instructional program will extend over five months, January to May 1976. Each month participants will attend two half day problem-solving seminars, visit a school operating a program relevant to the problem the participant is trying to solve, complete a minimum of three take-home learning modules to improve certain diagnosed weaknesses, and achieve certain core and individualized objectives in his school. Each participant negotiates an individualized program based on a thorough preassessment involving teachers, students, external observers, and self.

Visiting Other Schools

Each participant will be required to visit one school per month during the five months of this program. The schools chosen should be operating programs which may be relevant to the problem the participant is attempting to solve in his school. A list of all approved Title III projects for 1975-1976 in Georgia has been provided to help participants plan their visits.

It will be the responsibility of each participant to arrange his own trips. Prior approval from the participant's project supervisor should precede each visit. Naturally, visits may be made individually, with a group of participants, or with some faculty members. While having one or more of the participant's teachers accompany him to another school may not always be feasible, it may be an effective way to improve faculty participation in school problem solving.

School Visit Objective

Conditions: Given a minimum of five visits to other schools operating programs relevant to the problem the participant is working on in his school,

Outcomes: each participant will demonstrate the ability to analyze these programs in terms of his school's needs.

Criteria: The participant will demonstrate this ability in written form by charting each program as a possible alternative to be considered in his school. All five reports must be graded "satisfactory" by the project supervisor before a participant may receive credit for this module.

Resource Modules

Each participant will be required to study a minimum of fifteen resource modules during the five months of the program, at least three modules should be completed each month. The modules chosen should pertain to the problem the participant is attempting to solve in his school. A module may be selected from Lloyd McCleary's Individual Learning Module (ILM) series available through Project R.O.M.E., or it may consist of a chapter or section of a book from the attached bibliography or a book of the participant's own choosing. Resource material should be chosen upon approval by the field supervisor.

Note: ILM Modules are available through the Project office at VSC. A list of modules, their content descriptions, and a manual for use with these modules are provided for each participant. There are also some books available through the office, and an annotated bibliography of those books is also provided. The study guides for use with ILM Modules each have a list of suggested readings. If the participant finds a book or other material that he would like to study, but is not available through the VSC library, funds are available to purchase such material. Participants may request such material by calling the office or by notifying their field supervisors.

Resource Module Objective

Conditions: Given a minimum of 15 resource modules relevant to the problem the participant is working on in his school,

Outcomes: each participant will demonstrate a familiarity with the content of each module in terms of his school's needs.

Criteria: The participant will demonstrate familiarity by writing a reaction report. All 15 reports must be graded "satisfactory" by the project supervisor before a participant may receive credit for this module.

F.A.C.T. OBJECTIVES

In this section each participant is assigned six or more objectives based on a problem he chooses to work on in his school. These objectives are operationalized in terms of selected F.A.C.T. statements relevant to the process of problem solving, and the problem the participant selects. The first five objectives are core objectives concerned with the *process* of school problem solving. Additional objectives are individualized objectives concerned with the *content* of the participant's problem-solving activities.

Core Competencies

Each participant must complete five core competencies. These core competenceis are common to all participants, and are the basis for the core problem-solving seminars which meet twice a month. F.A.C.T. 20, 19, 16, and 9 under curriculum and instruction are reworded somewhat to specify them to the consequence analysis rationale. The behavioral indicators from these four F.A.C.T. statements provide the outcomes specified in five objectives concerned with initiating structure, defining the problem, charting alternatives, implementing objectives, and intervention. These are process objectives concerned with competency in problem solving. See the Appendix for a presentation of these F.A.C.T. statements and their behavioral indicators.

Initiating Structure

Initiating structure refers to a leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of his staff, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of

organization, channels of communications, and methods of procedure.[8] In terms of Project R.O.M.E.-F.O.C.U.S., initiating structure is operationalized with respect to F.A.C.T. number twenty, indicators two, five, and seven stated as follows:

Objective

Conditions: Given two seminars concerned with problem solving and initiating structure, and supplementary reading in the first chapter of *Consequence Analysis.*

Outcomes: each participant will be able to demonstrate the following observable outcomes in his school:

1. The participant has scheduled released time during the regular school day for teachers and administrators to work on an instructional problem. (20.2)
2. The participant has scheduled regular committee meetings to discuss an instructional problem. (20.5)
3. The participant has appointed a faculty committee to review an instructional problem. (20.7)

Defining the Problem

Defining a problem is the initial phase to the problem-solving process. In terms of our project, defining a problem is operationalized in terms of F.A.C.T. number twenty, indicators six and four.

Objective

Conditions: Given two seminars concerned with developing a problem definition and supplementary reading in the second chapter of *Consequence Analysis,*

Outcomes: each participant will be able to demonstrate the following observable outcomes in his school:

1. The participant has worked cooperatively with teachers in defining an instructional problem relevant to students, teachers, business, and community members. (20.6)
2. The participant has defined and prioritorized instructional problem definitions for action. (20.4)

Charting Alternatives

Considering alternatives for the solution of a high priority problem is the second phase of the problem-solving process. This phase should involve various professionals helping in the production of alternatives, and especially those directly affected by the problem being studied. In terms of this project, charting alternatives is operationalized with respect to F.A.C.T. number nineteen, indicators one and two.

Objective

Conditions: Given two seminars concerned with problem solving and charting alternatives, and supplementary reading in the third chapter of *Consequence Analysis,*

Outcomes: each participant will be able to demonstrate the following observable outcomes in his school:

1. The participant has encouraged teachers to generate new curriculum ideas for solving the instructional problem. (19.1)
2. The participant has determined desirable instructional alternatives based on interaction with teachers and the application of the charting process. (19.2)

Implementing Objectives

Stating a selected alternative in terms of its consequences, and planning the reduction of the alternative's negative consequences is the basis for this phase of problem solving. We have operationalized this phase in terms of F.A.C.T. number sixteen, indicators one through five.

Objective

Conditions: Given two seminars concerned with problem solving and implementing objectives, and supplementary reading in the fourth chapter of *Consequence Analysis,*

Outcomes: each participant will be able to demonstrate the following observable outcomes in his school:

1. Through discussions with teachers, the participant has developed objectives for evaluating both short and long range

outcomes of the proposed alternatives for solving a specified instructional problem. (16.1)

2. The participant has decided what methods are to be used in evaluating progress toward outcomes specified in the objectives. (16.5)

3. The participant has planned a system for evaluating progress toward outcomes specified in the objectives. (16.3)

4. The participant maintains a system for continuous recording of achievement test data, grades, and other criteria used in evaluating progress toward outcomes specified in the objectives. (16.2)

5. The participant periodically evaluates progress toward outcomes specified in the objectives. (16.4)

Intervention

Intervention is simply the process involved with adapting and applying a particular problem solution in the school. It may involve training teachers in new ways of doing things. It may involve going into classrooms and helping teachers adapt to new ways of solving instructional problems, or it may involve regularly discussing with teachers the consequences of what is being done. Probably the most important feature of intervention is the reduction of the negative consequences inherent in the selected solution. This project will operationalize the intervention process in terms of F.A.C.T. number nine, indicators one through three.

Objective

Conditions: Given two seminars concerned with problem solving and intervention, and supplementary reading in chapter five of *Consequence Analysis,*

Outcomes: each participant will be able to demonstrate the following observable outcomes in his school:

1. The participant has planned and begun inservice training to help teachers develop skills necessary for solving an instructional problem. (9.1)

2. The participant observes teachers in classrooms in order to identify problem-solving skills needing improvements. (9.2)

3. The participant periodically discusses classroom problem solving goals and objectives with teachers. (9.3)

Indiviualized Objectives

In addition to the five core problem-solving objectives, each participant will be asked to choose one or more F.A.C.T. statements stated as an objective(s) which will serve as the content for the problem-solving process. For instance, an assistant principal in a secondary school might be very interested in F.A.C.T. number eleven "Consistently Failing Students in Regular Classrooms and Alternatives" based on the preassessment data and the perceived demands of his position in the school organization. Assistant principals often handle discipline problems, and chronic discipline cases are often the consistently failing students. In this case, the assistant principal might choose to work with teachers in developing ways and means of helping these students. This would constitute the content of the problem-solving process.

Criteria For F.A.C.T. Objectives

Core and individualized objectives are to be stated in terms of conditions and outcomes. Since in Project R.O.M.E.-F.O.C.U.S. we are taking the position that competency is to be operationally defined as the school administrator's ability to identify and solve a high priority problem in his school and demonstrate doing so in terms of observable outcomes, then it becomes essential that a clear understanding exist about the criteria utilized in substantiating observable outcomes. There are some things participants are asked to consider in establishing evaluation criteria.

1. Document in written form as much as possible, including names, places, and times. If a committee is appointed it should be reported in written communication. Have a recorder keep notes at the meetings. Keep this documentation in a file.

2. Preplan events so that the project staff can observe, Make sure supervisors have a copy of any schedules developed.

3. Have a list of associates handy so that any interviewing of people involved in projects will be easy to arrange.

Professors of Education at Valdosta State College *not* serving in the role of supervisor or of instructor in this project will visit each participant's school on a quarterly basis to substantiate the existence of outcomes specified in the core and individualized objectives. These people will ask about the participant's progress, ask to see written documentation, and ask to interview people involved in the work. The visits will be arranged in advance by mutual consent of participant and project staff. These visits will serve as the criteria for all F.A.C.T. objectives. If an impartial external observer can visit a participant's school and readily observe the outcomes specified in the F.A.C.T. objectives, then the participant should receive full credit for their completion. A criteria statement for all objectives in this section is articulated as follows:

Criteria: In visits to the participant's school, observable outcomes must be substantiated by an external observer not directly involved in the instructional phase of the project. In addition, two thirds of a committee made up of the participant, the field supervisor, and the external observer must favorably evaluate the quality of these outcomes. Both the substantiation of outcomes by an external observer, and a two thirds majority vote on the quality of these outcomes are necessary for completion of each F.A.C.T. objective.

The Role of the Field Supervisor

Each participant will be assigned to a core problem-solving seminar. The instructor for that seminar will serve as the field supervisor for each participant in the seminar. The role of the field supervisor is to help each participant identify and achieve his own individual program objectives through group interaction in the seminars, and through visits to the participant's school. These school visits should be well planned for by the participant and related directly to program objectives. Scheduling for the seminars and field visits will be negotiated by the field supervisor and the participants he is advising.

SUMMARY

Project R.O.M.E.-F.O.C.U.S. offers school administrators an opportunity to improve administrative skills while working on real and immediate school problems. Through this program Valdosta State College is seeking relevant advanced training programs for school administrators which produce certain desired outcomes in the participants' schools. To be a self-renewing program it must exhibit three essential characteristics. First, it must be relatively inexpensive to execute. Second, it must demonstrate the ability to produce outcomes at least comparable to traditional training programs in school administration. Third, it must be relatively easy for existing graduate schools in school administration to adopt. That is, it must be perceived as a relatively non-threatening, low hinderance alternative by both faculty and graduate students in school administration.

FOOTNOTES

[1]It is important to note here that virtually all the preliminary research mentioned in this pamphlet, including the development of pre and post assessment procedures, and the development of the F.A.C.T. competency statements must be credited to the Project R.O.M.E. staff at The University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.

[2]Edgar H. Schein, *Process Consultation: Its Role in Organization Development*, (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

[3]Donald J. Willower, "Educational Change and Functional Equivalents," *Education and Urban Society*, August 1970, pp. 385-402.

[4]Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure*, (New York: The Free Press, 1968), pp. 104-109.

[5]Hans Zetterberg, *On Theory and Verification in Sociology*, (Tototwa, New Jersey: Bedminster Press, third edition, 1966), pp. 114-131.

[6]This is indeed a very simplified example of charting alternatives. In an actual charting, there would be many alternatives generated. In addition, there would be an extensive listing of all possible intended and negative consequences.

[7]Robert F. Mager, *Preparing Instructionel Objectives*, (Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962).

[8]Andrew Halpin, *Theoryand Research in Administration*, (New York: MacMillan, 1967), p. 86.

APPENDIX

Below are the four F.A.C.T. statements and their behavioral indicators used as a basis for tl.e core objectives. These four were selected from the area of curriculum and supervision because this area was felt to be most directly related to the goals and objectives of the school organization. However, these F.A.C.T. statements are only four of eighty which survived exhaustive research, including a statewide priority survey with 290 principals in Georgia. The four are listed in numerical order.

FACT NINE

Teacher Instructional Problem Solving Skills

1. Plans in-service training to help teachers develop skills necessary for solving instructional problems.
2. Observes teachers in classrooms in order to identify instructional problem solving skills needing improvement.

FACT SIXTEEN

Evaluation of Students Progress Toward Instructional Objectives

1. Discusses with teachers which procedures for evaluating both short and long range instructional objectives are to be employed.
2. Maintains a system for continuous recording of achievement test data, grades, and other evaluative information.
3. Plans a system for evaluating student progress toward instructional objectives.
4. Periodically evaluates student achievement using standardized tests.
5. Decides what methods are to be used in evaluating progress toward instructional objectives.

FACT NINETEEN

Teacher Input and Design of Curricula

1. Determines desirable curriculum changes based on classroom observation information, teacher discussion, etc.
2. Encourages teachers to generate new curriculum ideas.

FACT TWENTY

Modification of Curriculum Content and Organization

1. Encourages teachers to work together in modifying curriculum.
2. Schedules released time for teachers to plan for and revise courses during regular school day.
3. Organizes faculty committees to evaluate curriculum content.
4. Determines curriculum areas needing modification.
5. Schedules staff meetings to discuss curriculum content areas where modification is needed.
6. Assesses extent to which curriculum content is perceived as being relevant by students, teachers, and business and community members.
7. Appoints faculty committee to review curriculum content and organization and recommend needed changes.